



# In situ photochemical fabrication of CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposites with high performance for hydrogen evolution under visible light

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## ABSTRACT

Stable photo catalysts with high performance for hydrogen evolution under visible light are important in the field of renewable energy. Herein, a hybrid composite of CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with a tunable density of CdS was made through in situ photochemical deposition of CdS nanodots onto g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets. The resulting material was much more active under visible light than CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, not only for the photocatalytic evolution of H<sub>2</sub> in the presence of lactic acid but also for the photo electrochemical oxidation of water. The maximum rate of H<sub>2</sub> production was 2537 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, which was 2–10 times higher than the reported values. Importantly, the present CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> material was very stable during continuous irradiation for 55 h. The enhanced activity and stability are attributed to precise regulation of the position of CdS on the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> surface and the formation of a type II heterojunction, increasing visible light absorption, favoring band overlapping, and promoting charge separation for interfacial reactions. This study opens a new avenue for the in situ engineering of stable photo catalysts to produce rich and active heterointerfaces for H<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> evolution.

## 1. Introduction

Water splitting through semiconductor photo catalysis is an attractive method for clean energy production [1] and has been extensively studied over the past three decades [2]. To utilize solar energy, photo catalysts not only absorb visible light but also have good performance in charge separation, interfacial charge transfer, and chemical stability [3–6]. Recently, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) has received considerable attention because it is easily prepared and has a narrow band gap (2.7 eV) [7]. In addition, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is nonmetallic, nontoxic, and highly stable. These characteristics make g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> attractive for photo catalyst construction [8]. However, bulk g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> prepared by the conventional method has a low surface area and irregular morphology. As a result, the rate of interfacial charge transfer is not high, and the photocatalytic performance of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is poor [9,10].

To improve the photocatalytic activity of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, a number of methods have been developed, including nanostructure design, heterojunction construction, doping with metal or non-metal elements, and coupling with carbon materials [11–15]. In particular, coupling g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with narrow-gap semiconductors not only expands absorption into the visible light region but also improves the efficiency of charge separation [16]. As a visible-light-active photo catalyst, CdS has also

received great attention [17–19]. CdS can absorb sunlight up to 560 nm and catalyze the half-reaction of water splitting to release hydrogen [20]. Moreover, CdS has a good mobility of charge carriers [21] and a variety of morphologies, including nanodots, nanospheres, nanosheets, and nanorods [22–24]. To achieve a high catalytic efficiency of CdS-based nanomaterials with the desired structures, many synthesis methods have been used, including chemical bath deposition and hydrothermal, sonochemical, electrochemical, and impregnation routes [25–31]. Coupling g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with CdS may be an effective way to improve the photocatalytic activity for H<sub>2</sub> evolution [32–37]. Wang et al synthesized CdS quantum dots by a hydrothermal method and loaded them on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> spheres [38]. This structure greatly promotes the surface kinetics of charge separation and mass transfer. Selvam et al. selected rGO as the mediator of electron transport and constructed Z-scheme hybrids (CdS/rGO/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>) using a hydrothermal process [39]. This Z-scheme process decreases the probability of charge carrier recombination and improves H<sub>2</sub> generation activity. Yin et al reported porous double-shell CdS@C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> prepared by in situ supramolecular self-assembly, which showed high photocatalytic activity and stability in H<sub>2</sub> production and selective oxidation of alkylarenes [40]. However, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/CdS samples prepared via traditional methods (hydrothermal methods, cation exchange, etc.) suffer from serious corrosion due to the

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hole oxidation of sulfide ions in CdS. Therefore, a suitable method of surface engineering that allows the catalyst to have ultrahigh stability while maintaining efficient hydrogen production performance is needed. A smart approach might be to precisely regulate the position of CdS on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with a controllable electronic transfer direction and particle size.

Photochemical synthesis is a gentle and rapid method for the preparation of metal (oxide) nanoparticles (NPs) on light-responsive substances. Several studies have shown that noble metals can be precisely deposited onto semiconductors through a photochemical route [41]. Under light irradiation, electrons (holes) generated by semiconductor excitation can reduce (oxidize) some metal salts into metal nanoparticles (NP) (metal oxides), which are selectively attached to specific surfaces of the semiconductor [42]. Metal (oxide) NPs (such as, Pt, Au, Ag, MnO<sub>x</sub>, and PbO<sub>2</sub>) are often used as catalysts of semiconductor photocatalysis and have high stability against photo corrosion [43–46]. The resulting composites have the advantage of promoting charge transfer for efficient and stable hydrogen evolution [41,47–49]. Hiroaki et al reported for the first time that CdS was deposited on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> by photo deposition and proposed the formation mechanism of CdS [50]. Li et al reported the deposition of Au and CdS on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> by photo deposition and constructed a Z-type heterojunction that showed excellent properties in photo degradation dye experiments [51]. In the conventional method, the CdS was randomly loaded on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, by means of chemical deposition. Compared with the traditional ways, the photochemical preparation method can selectively deposit CdS on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, which greatly enhanced the activity and stability of the catalyst under visible light conditions. However, no work has been found using the in situ photo deposition of CdS onto g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets to precisely regulate the position of CdS with a controllable electronic transfer direction and particle size. In this study, we report such an in situ route to fabricate CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposites. Under visible light, the composite materials are not only highly active for hydrogen evolution but also very stable against photo corrosion. It is proposed that CdS is photo chemically loaded onto the electron-generated sites of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with the formation of a type II heterojunction.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Material preparation

Bulk g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets were prepared by following a previous report [5]. Briefly, 10 g melamine was heated at 550 °C under air for 4 h with a ramp rate of 2.3 °C min<sup>−1</sup>. Then, yellow bulk g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was milled into a fine powder and further treated at 500 °C under air for 2 h with a heating rate of 5 °C. CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was prepared by a photochemical method. An ethanol suspension (200 mL) containing 200 mg g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was mixed with S<sub>8</sub> (64 mg) and Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O (1.23 g). The suspension was purged with N<sub>2</sub> for 30 min and then irradiated with a 300 W Xenon lamp for 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 h. Then, the bright yellow product was collected by centrifugation, washed several times with water and ethanol, and dried at 60 °C overnight. The resulting samples are denoted as CS-*x*, where *x* represents the time (hours) used for the photochemical deposition of CdS (Table 1). Pure CdS was made according to the previous literature [32]. Cd(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O (8 mmol), thiourea (8 mmol), and

polyvinylpyrrolidone (0.9 g) were dissolved in 80 mL water. Then, the solution was transferred into a Teflon-lined autoclave (100 mL) and heated at 160 °C for 12 h in an oven. After that, the solid was collected by centrifugation, washed with ethanol and water several times, and dried at 60 °C overnight.

### 2.2. Solid characterization

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed on an SU-8000 (Hitachi, Tokyo). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed on an FEI Tecnai G2 F20 S-TWIN (FEI, America). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted on an Escalab 250 Xi (America) with an Axis Ultra DLD spectrometer (resolution 0.5 eV). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a D8 Advance (Bruker, Germany) with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation. UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) were recorded on a TU-1901 UV–vis spectrophotometer (Pgeneral, China) equipped with an integrating sphere and with BaSO<sub>4</sub> as a reference. Photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy was performed on an FLS920 spectrophotometer (Edinburgh, UK) equipped with a xenon lamp. The surface functional groups were examined using Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR, Nicolet, America). N<sub>2</sub> adsorption was measured at −196 °C on a NOVA-2000E analyzer and used to calculate the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area.

### 2.3. Photo catalysis

Photocatalytic reactions were carried out on a water-splitting apparatus (Labsolar-6A, Perfect Light Beijing). Prior to irradiation, a suspension (100 mL) containing 20 mg catalyst and 10 vol.% lactic acid was evacuated several times to completely remove air. After that, the vessel was vertically irradiated at 6 °C with a 300 W Xe lamp (Microsolar AR300, Perfect light, Beijing) equipped with a 420 nm cut-off filter. When necessary, the catalyst was photo chemically deposited with 1 wt% Pt from a H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub> solution. The amount of H<sub>2</sub> released in the vessel was analyzed by a gas chromatograph (9790 II, Fuli, Zhejiang) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). The amount of Cd<sup>2+</sup> dissolved in solution was analyzed by atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS, PerkinElmer, USA).

### 2.4. Photo electrochemical measurements

A working electrode was prepared as follows. First, 2.0 mg of catalyst was dispersed in a solution containing 1 mL DMF (N,N-dimethylformamide) and 20  $\mu$ L Nafion perfluorinated resin. Then, 20  $\mu$ L of the suspension was uniformly dropped onto a 0.5  $\times$  0.5 cm<sup>2</sup> indium-tin oxide (ITO) glass and dried at 60 °C overnight. Measurements were performed on a CHI600D electrochemical analyzer (Chenhua Instruments Co., Shanghai) in a standard three-electrode system, with a Pt wire as the counter electrode and Ag/AgCl as the reference electrode. The electrolyte was 0.50 M NaClO<sub>4</sub> (pH 6.7), and the light source was a 300 W Xe lamp.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Solid characterization

Fig. 1 shows the XRD patterns of the samples. For g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, there were two distinct diffractions, corresponding to the in-plane structural packing motif and interlayer stacking of aromatic segments for graphitic materials, respectively [33]. For CdS, there were six major peaks with lattice constants of *a* = 4.1307 Å and *c* = 6.7144 Å, well matching those for hexagonal CdS (JCPDS: 41–1049) [32]. For CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, the characteristic diffractions of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CdS decreased and increased, respectively, as the irradiation time for CdS formation increased. These observations indicate that CdS was successfully deposited onto g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> without changing the crystal structure.

**Table 1**  
Contents of Cd and CdS in CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> samples measured by AAS.

Catalysts	Irradiation time (h)	Cd (wt%)	CdS (wt%)
CS-1	1	2.73	3.50
CS-2	2	11.29	14.50
CS-3	3	16.10	20.68
CS-4	4	19.93	25.60
CS-5	5	23.22	29.83

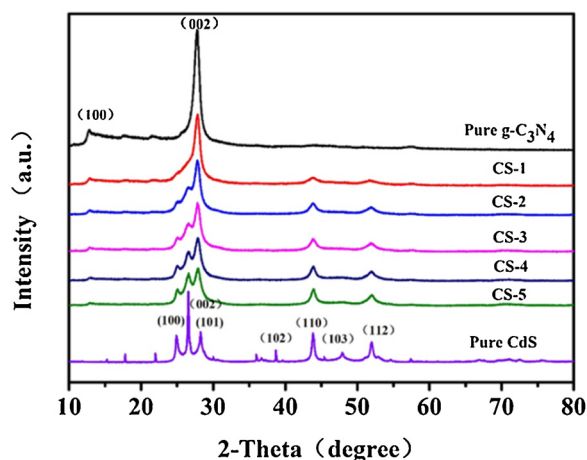


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of the samples as indicated by the legends. CS-*x* represents the CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> sample prepared from the photochemical deposition of CdS onto g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> for *x* h.

Fig. 2 shows the SEM and TEM images of the samples. Pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> had a two-dimensional layer structure with a thickness of approximately 1–10 nm, and the surface was smooth and wrinkle-free (Fig. 2a). Pure CdS was in the form of nanodots, which were tightly aggregated into an irregularly large-sized particle (Fig. 2b). The image of CS-4 shows many fine particles of CdS separately and uniformly deposited on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 2c). The particle size of CdS on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was smaller than 20 nm. The TEM and HRTEM images showed that CdS selectively attached to the surface of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets (Fig. 2d), whereas the lattice fringes of 0.311 and 0.330 nm corresponded to the (101) and (002) planes of CdS, respectively (Fig. 2f). Interestingly, there was intimate contact between CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, which was beneficial to charge transfer between the two materials. STEM-EDX mapping showed that all elements (C, N, Cd, and S) were uniformly distributed in CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 2g). These observations indicate that the sample

prepared by the photochemical deposition of CdS onto g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> possesses a heterostructure and is not simply a physical mixture of two separate phases (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CdS).

Fig. 3a shows the FTIR spectra of the samples. Pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> had three absorption regions. The broad band from 3000–3400 cm<sup>−1</sup> is assigned to the stretching vibrations of terminal –NH<sub>2</sub> or –NH groups (3201 cm<sup>−1</sup>) at the defect sites of aromatic rings [52]. The absorption peaks at 1200–1700 cm<sup>−1</sup> are the typical stretching modes of aromatic carbon nitride heterocycles, whereas the band at 812 cm<sup>−1</sup> is due to the characteristic breathing mode of s-thiazine units. All of these peaks were also observed in CS-4. For pure CdS, the broad absorption peaks at 3430 cm<sup>−1</sup> and 1632 cm<sup>−1</sup> are attributed to surface-adsorbed water. The peaks at 2062 cm<sup>−1</sup>, 1387 cm<sup>−1</sup>, 1100 cm<sup>−1</sup>, and 616 cm<sup>−1</sup> can be attributed to Cd–S bonds [36]. These peaks were also observed in CS-4. These observations indicate that the structure of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> remains unchanged upon CdS deposition.

XPS was used to examine the chemical composition of CS-4. C, N, S, Cd, and O were all present in the sample (Fig. 3). The small quantities of O observed are due to the adsorbed H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> on the solid surface. The XPS spectrum of C 1s can be deconvoluted into three peaks (Fig. 3c). The peak at 284.6 eV is ascribed to graphitic carbon-carbon bonds. The peak located at 287.9 eV corresponds to sp<sup>2</sup>-bonded carbons in the N-containing aromatic structure (N–C = N). The weak peak at 285.9 eV is attributed to sp<sup>3</sup>-bonded carbon species from defects in the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> surface [52]. The high-resolution XPS spectra of N 1s showed three peaks (Fig. 3d). The main peak at 398.8 eV is assigned to sp<sup>2</sup>-bonded nitrogen in the thiazine ring (C–N = C). The other two peaks at 400.1 and 401.2 eV are assigned to tertiary nitrogen-bonded carbon (N–(C)<sub>3</sub>) and amino groups with a hydrogen atom (C–N–H), respectively [52]. The XPS peaks of Cd 3d at 404.9 and 411.6 eV (Fig. 3e) are assigned to Cd 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and 3d<sub>3/2</sub>, respectively, as observed for CdS [53]. The peaks of S 2p at 161.2 and 162.4 eV (Fig. 3f) are ascribed to S<sup>2−</sup> in CdS [35]. XPS analysis further confirms that CdS was photochemically deposited onto g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, in agreement with the above results (Fig. 2).

Fig. 4a shows the adsorption/desorption isotherms of N<sub>2</sub> on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4. The isotherm was type IV, indicative of a mesoporous

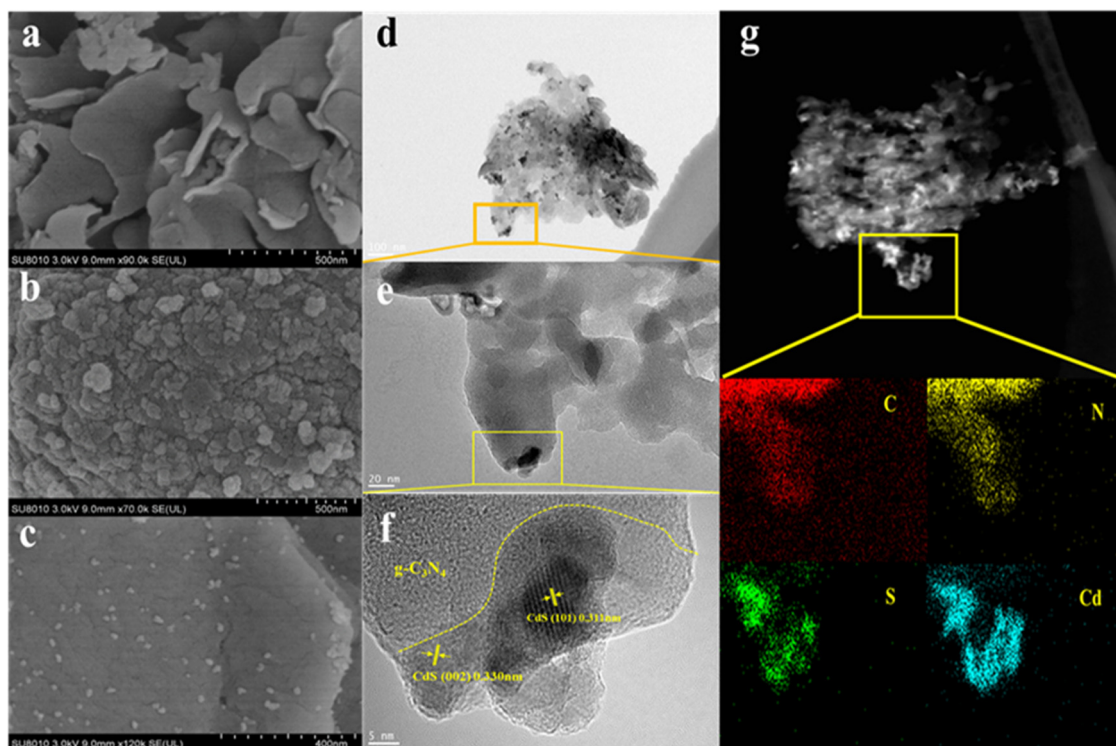


Fig. 2. SEM images of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets (a), CdS (b), and CS-4 (c). TEM (d, e) and HRTEM (f) images of CS-4. STEM-EDX elemental mapping of CS-4 (g).

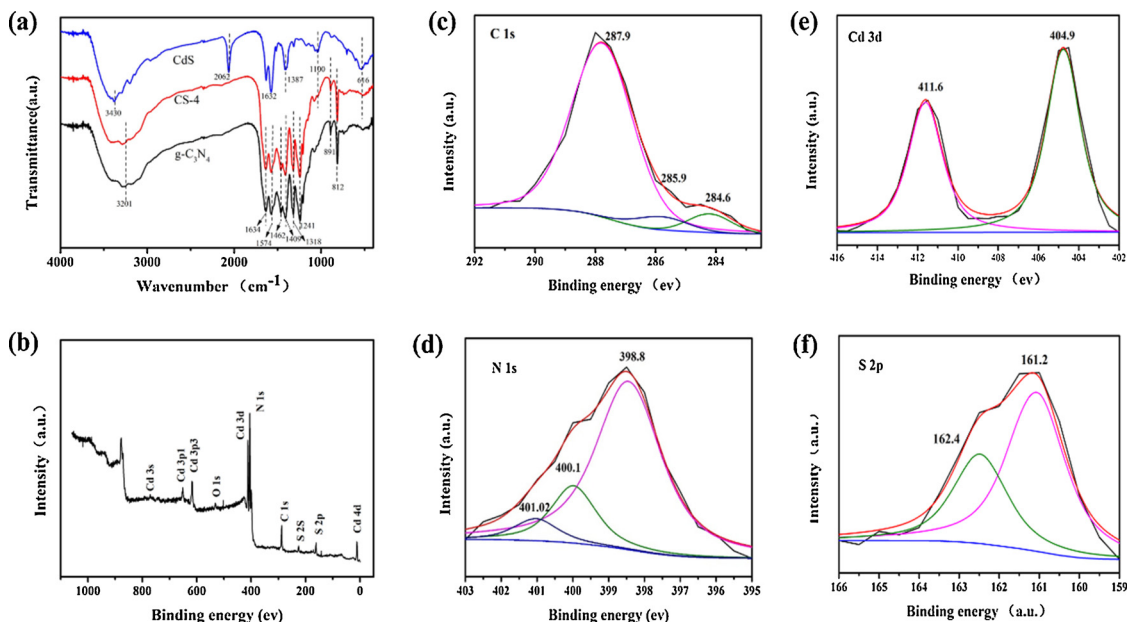


Fig. 3. FTIR spectra of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CdS and CS-4 (a). XPS spectra of CS-4 (b) and the corresponding high-resolution XPS spectra of C 1s (c), Cd 3d (d), N 1s (e), and S 2p (f).

structure. The BET surface areas of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4 were calculated to be 127 and 115 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Two samples had similar average pore sizes of 3.0 nm (Fig. 4b). However, in the pore size region of 10–30 nm, the pore volume of CS-4 was considerably lower than that of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. This difference indicates that the pores of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were blocked or occupied by CdS nanoparticles. Fig. 4c shows the absorption spectra of the samples. In the visible light region at 450–650 nm, the absorption of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> very weak, while that of CdS was stronger. Hence, the visible light absorption of CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> increased with the content of CdS in the sample. Then, the band gap energy ( $E_g$ ) for the samples was determined through a Tauc plot,  $(ah\nu)^{1/n} = A(h\nu - E_g)$ , where  $n$  is 2 for directly

allowed transitions (Fig. 4d). The resulting values of  $E_g$  for CdS, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, and CS-4 were 2.0, 2.61 and 2.1 eV, respectively. Moreover, the enhanced absorption of CS samples at wavelengths longer than 600 nm is probably due to the formation of a heterojunction between CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.

### 3.2. Photo electrochemical oxidation of H<sub>2</sub>O

Fig. 5(a) shows the current-voltage diagrams of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CdS and CS-4 film electrodes in 0.5 M NaClO<sub>4</sub>. In the dark, the electrode current was negligible. Under visible light, the electrode current was greatly

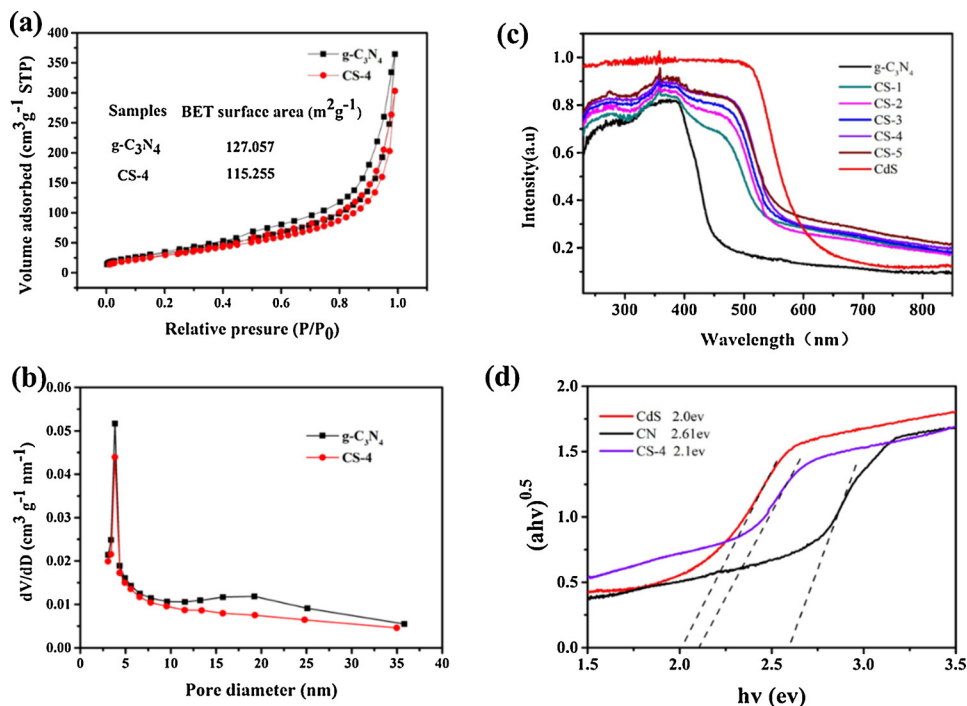


Fig. 4. N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption isotherms (a), pore-size distributions (b), and UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra measured from samples as indicated by the legends. Plot of  $(ah\nu)^{0.5}$  vs  $h\nu$  (d).



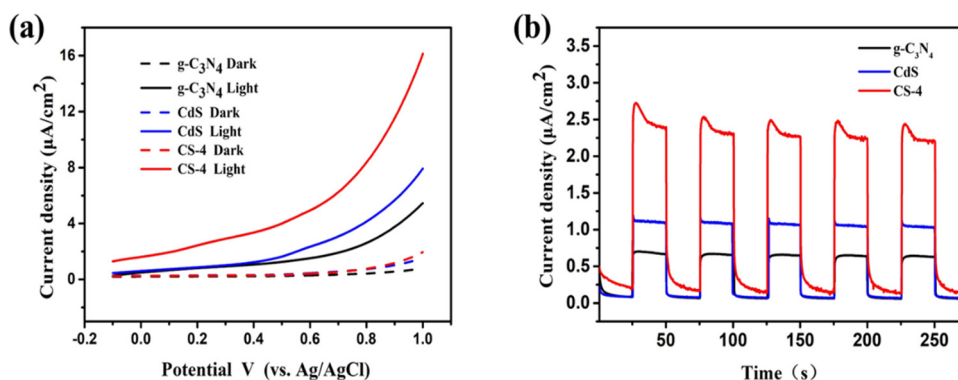


Fig. 5. Linear voltammetry curves for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CdS and CS-4 film electrodes (a), and the photocurrent at 0.4 V (vs. Ag/AgCl), measured in 0.5 M NaClO<sub>4</sub>.

enhanced, indicative of water oxidation by the photo generated holes. During the positive potential sweep, the photocurrent increased due to the improved efficiency of charge separation. At a given potential, interestingly, the electrode photocurrent became larger in the order CS-4 > CdS > g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. Moreover, during the five repeated on/off light cycles, the transient photocurrent recorded at 0.4 V vs AgCl/Ag remained stable, and the CS-4 electrode had a photocurrent larger than the sum of the photocurrents measured from the CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> electrodes (Fig. 5b). The latter result is probably ascribed to the formation of a heterojunction between CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, promoting the separation of charge carriers and consequently increasing the hole oxidation of water. To further verify this hypothesis, the photoluminescence spectra (PL) of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4 were recorded. After excitation with 405 nm light, a strong and broad emission band was observed from g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, but not from CS-4 (Fig. S1a). Then, a time-resolved fluorescence spectrum was recorded (Fig. S1b). The decay curves of PL were well fitted to a tri-exponential function, from which the average lifetime of charge carriers was calculated (Table S1). Interestingly, CS-4 had an average lifetime of 4.24 ns, shorter than that of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (4.90 ns). These observations indicate that CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> form a heterojunction structure comprising the recombination of photo generated electrons and holes and consequently increasing the hole oxidation of water [54,55].

### 3.3. Photocatalytic evolution of H<sub>2</sub>

Reactions were carried out at 6 °C by using lactic acid as a hole scavenger. Fig. 6a shows the result of H<sub>2</sub> production over different CS samples in aqueous suspensions, measured under visible light for 5 h. As the photo deposition time of CdS increased, the amount of H<sub>2</sub> initially increased and then decreased. A maximum amount of H<sub>2</sub> was observed from CS-4, with a value of 7746 μmol/g (reaction time is 3 h). Elemental analysis showed that the content of CdS in CS increased with photo deposition time and that CS-4 had 25.6 wt% CdS (Table 1). Notably, the CdS nanoparticles on the surface of the sample CS-5 were severely aggregated (Fig. S2). The reduced evolution of H<sub>2</sub> on CS-5 is due to the increased aggregation of CdS nanoparticles on the surface of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> [43]. CS-4 was much more active than either CdS or g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 6b). 1 wt% Pt was loaded on the surface of the samples as a co-catalyst. Pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> had poor activity (1335 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> in five hours), probably due to its weak absorption toward visible light (Fig. 4c). Pure CdS also exhibited poor activity (3135 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> in five hours), probably due to its rapid recombination of charge carriers and its low stability against corrosion. After g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was loaded with CdS, the composite materials showed excellent activity (12685 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> in five hours). The activity of CS-4 was increased by approximately 9.5 and 4 times compared with those of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CdS, respectively. When the cocatalyst did not be loaded on the surface of the samples, the hydrogen evolution performance of them was greatly reduced (Fig. S2). However,

the hydrogen evolution performance of CS-4 (2133 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> in five hour) is still much better than either g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> or CdS (364 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> in five hour). The apparent quantum efficiency of CS-4 at 420 nm was 3.41% (see Supporting Information). To evaluate the stability and durability of CS-4, eleven repeated tests were performed, and the results are shown in Fig. 6c. After 55 h of continuous irradiation, CS-4 was still very active for the photocatalytic production of H<sub>2</sub>. XRD analysis showed that CS-4 remained unchanged in the crystal structure (Fig. 6d). Importantly, the dissolved Cd<sup>2+</sup> in aqueous solution was only 5.774 mg/L, much lower than the previously reported value (40 mg/L) [54]. Furthermore, a survey of the literature data illustrates that the present sample (CS-4) is competitive with the reported CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> samples in terms of hydrogen production and catalyst stability (Table S2). This high photocatalytic activity of CS-4 is attributed to the formation of a heterojunction between g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CdS. This results in the enhancement of visible light absorption and the efficiency of charge separation, consequently promoting the electron reduction of water to produce H<sub>2</sub>.

### 3.4. Possible mechanism

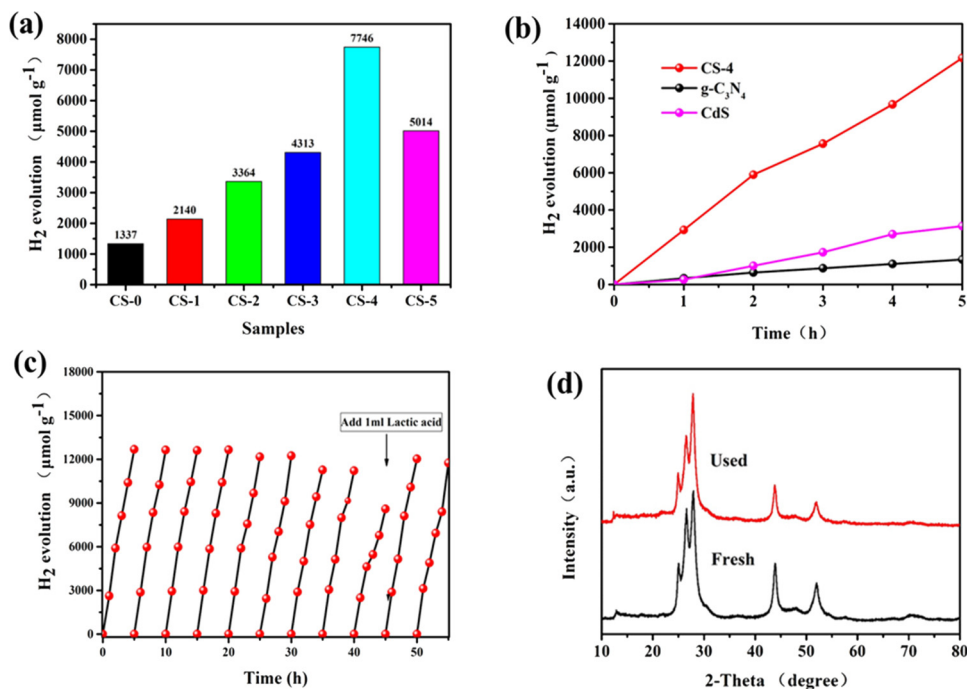
To elucidate the mechanism of CS-4 photo catalysis, the energy positions of the conduction band ( $E_{CB}$ ) and valence band ( $E_{VB}$ ) were estimated with Eqs. (1) and (2), where  $\chi$  is the element electronegativity and  $E_g$  is the band gap energy [47]. The  $\chi$  values of CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are 5.18 and 4.72 eV, respectively [56,57], whereas the  $E_g$  values of CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are 2.0 and 2.61 eV, respectively (Fig. 4d). Accordingly, the calculated values of  $E_{CB}$  and  $E_{VB}$  for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are ↓1.15 and 1.42 V vs. normal hydrogen electrode (NHE), respectively. The calculated values of  $E_{CB}$  and  $E_{VB}$  for CdS are ↓0.36 and 1.74 V vs. NHE, respectively.

$$E_{CB} = \chi - E_c - 1/2E_g \quad (1)$$

$$E_{VB} = E_g + E_{CB} \quad (2)$$

Moreover, the flat band potentials ( $E_{fb}$ ) for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4 were measured through Mott-Schottky plots, and the results are shown in Fig. 7. With both g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4, the plot slope was positive, indicating that the two solids were n-type semiconductors. The intercept with the x-axis was used to determine the  $E_{fb}$  values of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4, which were -1.13 and -0.38 V vs. Ag/AgCl, respectively. For n-type semiconductors,  $E_{CB}$  is approximately 0.2 V more negative than  $E_{fb}$  [58]. Then, the  $E_{CB}$  values of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4 are -1.13 and -0.38 V vs. NHE, respectively ( $E_{NHE} = E_{Ag/AgCl} + 0.197$ ) [59,60]. According to  $E_g$ , the  $E_{VB}$  values for g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4 are 1.48 and 1.72 V vs. NHE, respectively. The measured band edges are close to the calculated ones.

Based on the above calculations and experimental results, we explored the mechanism of electron transfer. In the literature, two types of heterojunctions have been proposed: Z-type and type II [35,61]. In the Z-type system (Fig. 8a), electron transfer occurs from photosystem II



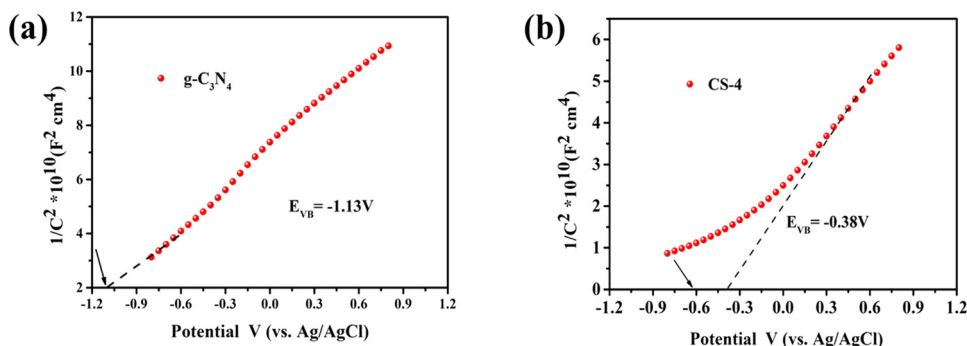
**Fig. 6.** Photocatalytic production of H<sub>2</sub> in an aqueous suspension containing lactic acid. Samples were (a) CS at 3 h, (b) g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, CdS, and CS-4, and (c) CS-4 (new lactic acid was added at 40 h). (d) XRD patterns of CS-4 before and after 55 h of the repeated test.

(CdS) to photosystem I (g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>), resulting in recombination without neat redox reactions. Then, the holes remaining on CdS initiate the oxidation reaction and increase the light erosion of CdS, whereas the electrons remaining on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> initiate the reduction reaction. In the type II system (Fig. 8b), electron transfer occurs from g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> to CdS, whereas hole transfer occurs from CdS to g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. Then, oxidation on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and reduction on CdS occur. In general, Pt is reduced from H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub> by photoelectrons on the semiconductor surface during photo deposition. Therefore, the site of photo generated electron flow can be characterized by observing the position of platinum nanoparticles. In the TEM and HRTEM images of Pt/CS-4 (Fig. 8c and d), there were two lattice fringe spacings at 0.330 and 0.229 nm, corresponding to the (002) plane of CdS and the (111) plane of Pt, respectively. A linear scan of EDX for specific regions (Fig. S4c) showed that the distribution of Pt is consistent with the distribution of Cd and S, which means that Pt nanoparticles are closely attached to the surface of the CdS and implies electron transfer from g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> to CdS. Similarly, photo generated holes can oxidize MnSO<sub>4</sub> to form MnOx, which can be used to characterizes the hole transfer route [62]. In the STEM image of CS-4, the substance that emitted a bright spot was CdS, and the layered substance near the edge belonged to MnOx. A linear scan of EDX for specific regions (Fig.S5) showed that the distribution of the Mn element was consistent with the distribution of O elements, which indicated the existence of

MnOx nanoparticles. The distribution of Mn and O elements is generally consistent with the distribution of C and N elements. This further implies that the hole transfers from g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> to the site of MnOx nanoparticles, where the Mn<sup>2+</sup> is oxidized by holes and forms MnOx. Such charge transfer results suggest that CS-4 operates with a type II mechanism. Under illumination, both g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CdS are excited. To achieve Fermi level balance, the conduction electrons of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are transferred to the conduction band of CdS, whereas the valence holes of CdS are transferred to the valence band of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. As a result, both CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> have improved efficiency of charge separation and hence increased activity for water oxidation and reduction, respectively. Meanwhile, the photo corrosion of CdS due to the hole oxidation of S<sup>2-</sup> is suppressed, increasing the catalyst stability and activity for H<sub>2</sub> production.

#### 4. Conclusions

A heterostructured CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> material has been successfully achieved through in situ photochemical deposition of CdS. The composite material shows significantly enhanced activity for hydrogen evolution under visible light. The photo catalyst also has superior stability and remains stable for up to 55 h. The enhanced activity and stability are due to an intimate heterojunction between CdS and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>,



**Fig. 7.** Mott-Schottky plots of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and CS-4.

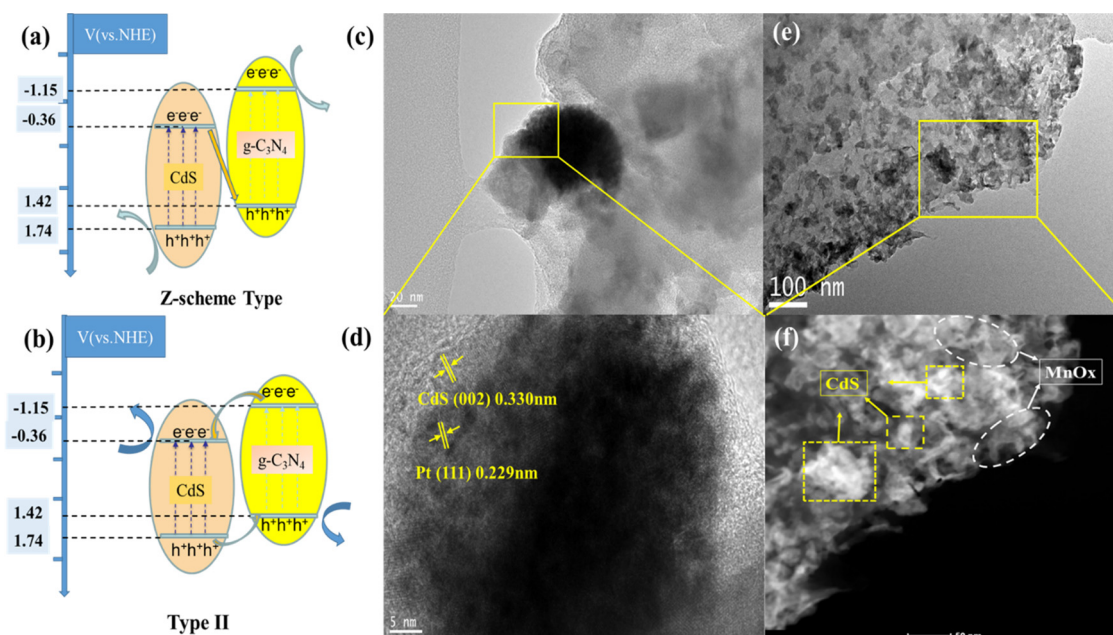


Fig. 8. Energy level diagrams and charge transfer routes of Z-type (a) and type II (b) CS-4. TEM (c) and HRTEM (d) of CS-4-Pt. TEM (e) and STEM (f) of CS-4 MnOx.

which facilitates band overlapping and promotes charge separation. This work provides a new method to precisely make an ideal heterojunction of CdS/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.117848>.

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